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FOUR METHODS FOR ASSESSING MULTI-ATTRIBUTE
UTILITIES: AN EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION

Gregory W. Fischer

Michigan University

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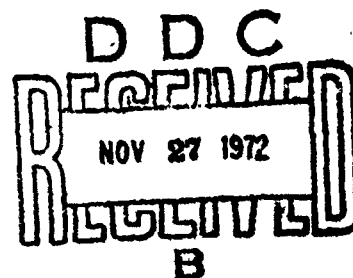
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Four Methods for Assessing Multi-Attribute Utilities: An Experimental Validation

Technical Report

GREGORY W. FISCHER



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Ann Arbor, Michigan

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13. ABSTRACT <p>In choosing between alternatives characterized by multiple value relevant attributes, decision makers must typically trade off one attribute against another. Previous research has shown that as the number of attributes describing alternatives becomes large, this subjective trade-off process becomes increasingly subject to error and that decision makers tend to ignore value relevant considerations. These shortcomings of the subjective evaluation process have been related to more general limitations on the human capacity to process information. Decomposed evaluation procedures seek to improve upon subjective evaluation by dividing the overall evaluation problem into a set of simpler subtasks, each of which is well within the judgmental capacities of the decision maker.</p> <p>The first section of this paper discusses the theoretical basis for multi-attribute value assessment and concludes that while additive evaluation models should be appropriate for most riskless decisions, non-additive models will frequently be required for decision making under uncertainty. The second section discusses the sensitivity of evaluation models to assessment errors. The third section describes four procedures for constructing a decomposed evaluation model. The fourth section treats the general problem of validating evaluation procedures. And the final two sections discuss two experiments which demonstrated that all four of the decomposition procedures described can provide an appropriate measure of subjective value.</p>			

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KEY WORDS

LINK A

LINK B

LINK C

ROLE

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Multi-attribute Utility
Riskless Choice
Risky Choice
Decision Making
Value Function
Utility Function
Convergent Validation

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INTRODUCTION

Decision makers frequently choose between courses of action whose probable consequences are characterized by multiple value attributes. For example, corporate strategies might be evaluated in terms of their implications for long run profits, short run profits, and market share; automobiles in terms of their safety and performance characteristics, cost, comfort, and luxury options; and prospective graduate students in terms of their test scores, recommendations, and undergraduate academic records. Optimal decision making in such contexts requires that decision makers trade off one value relevant factor against another in determining the overall worth of each possible alternative. Economic theorists (Edgeworth, 1881) have long assumed that people can subjectively make such trade-offs, but until very recently this assumption remained untested. During the past decade, however, psychologists have devoted a substantial effort to the study of the wholistic multi-attribute evaluation process. (Throughout this paper an evaluation will be said to be wholistic if it is generated by a subjective process without resort to formal analytical procedures.) These

studies, reviewed by Slovic and Lichtenstein (1971), have generally indicated that people can make such trade-offs in a systematic and meaningful fashion. Nevertheless, this research has also revealed important shortcomings of wholistic evaluation. First, wholistic evaluations tend to be based on but a limited number of value attributes, frequently ignoring potentially significant value relevant considerations (Shepard, 1964; Slovic and Lichtenstein, 1971). This shortcoming seems to arise from a more general limitation of human information processing--namely, that people can deal with only five to ten "chunks" of conceptual information at any given time (Miller, 1956). In addition, wholistic evaluations are characterized by a substantial degree of random error, and the amount of error tends to increase as the decision maker attempts to consider an increasing number of value attributes (Slovic and Lichtenstein, 1971). Error of this type has been shown to be an important source of suboptimality in real world decision making (Bowman, 1963).

As the shortcomings of wholistic evaluation have become increasingly apparent, decomposed evaluation procedures have been proposed as means for improving upon the intuitive decision making process. Decomposition methods attempt to achieve greater optimality by dividing

the overall evaluation task into a set of simpler sub-tasks, each of which is well within the judgmental capacities of the decision maker. These procedures typically involve the following major steps: a) list the set of alternatives to be evaluated; b) specify the set of attributes with respect to which each alternative is to be evaluated; c) numerically assess the value of each alternative with respect to each attribute; and d) specify an arithmetic evaluation rule for determining the overall value of each alternative. The final task, specification of an evaluation rule, is generally accomplished in one of two ways. When magnitude estimation procedures are used, each attribute is assigned a quantitative importance factor. The overall value of each alternative is then computed, usually using a weighted sum or product. When indifference judgment procedures are used, the decision maker must first select an important and continuous base attribute against which all other attributes can be traded off. Then trade-offs are assessed between the base attribute and each of the other attributes. Under the assumption that value combines additively across dimensions, the overall value of each alternative can then be expressed in terms of units of the base attribute.

Proponents of the decomposition approach claim the following major advantages. First, by reducing the information burden placed upon the decision maker, decomposition procedures should substantially reduce the amount of random error in the evaluation process. Second, decomposition permits decision makers to consider a much larger number of attributes in choosing between alternatives. These are probably the two most important advantages of decomposition over wholistic judgment. Others have been cited, however. Raiffa (1969) has argued that it can assist decision makers in the logical structuring of their problems, and Edwards (1971) has discussed a case study in which the explicitness of the procedures facilitated both the communication and resolution of conflicts between decision makers representing divergent interests. Edwards also argued that decomposition is especially suited to application in organizational environments, with specialists making judgments in their own areas of expertise and decision makers with overall responsibility specifying and weighting the criteria. Finally, Yntema and Torgerson (1961) have argued that decomposition should be particularly useful in decision making contexts requiring a large number of routine value judgments. For, once developed, a quantitative evaluation function can be incorporated in a computer algorithm, thus freeing the decision maker for intellectually more challenging tasks.

DECOMPOSED EVALUATION: THEORY, SENSITIVITY, METHOD, AND VALIDATION

As outlined above, decomposition procedures are rather ad hoc in nature. Critics might argue that the weighted sum formulation ignores configural interactions between attributes, interactions which decision makers themselves claim to take into consideration. This objection is greatly weakened, however, by the large body of experimental literature which shows that wholistic judgments can be very well approximated by simple additive models, and that configural considerations account for but a very small proportion of variance in this evaluative process (Slovic and Lichtenstein, 1971). Nevertheless, a stronger normative justification of decomposition procedure is required.

The Theoretical Basis for Multi-Attribute Evaluation

Riskless Decision Making. A decision is said to be riskless when the decision maker is able to specify with certainty the consequences associated with each course of action. Thus, riskless decisions require that the decision maker select one from a set of outcomes. When the riskless choice assumption is appropriate, the theory of conjoint

measurement (Krantz, Luce, Suppes, and Tversky, 1971) provides a formal axiomatic basis for additive decomposed evaluation. Notationally, let $(x_{11}, x_{21}, \dots, x_{n1})$ be the vector of attributes describing outcome X_1 , with x_{ji} denoting the j -th attribute of outcome X_i . Further, let $X_r \dot{<} X_s$ denote the relationship "outcome X_r is not preferred to outcome X_s ", and let $X_r \sim X_s$ denote "the decision maker is indifferent between outcomes X_r and X_s ."

The first two assumptions of the conjoint measurement formulation are fundamental to all theories of rational choice (Arrow, 1952). These are:

- 1) Connectedness: For any two outcomes X_i and X_j , either $X_i \dot{<} X_j$, $X_j \dot{<} X_i$ or $X_i \sim X_j$.
- 2) Transitivity: For any three outcomes, X_i , X_j , X_k , if $X_i \dot{<} X_j$, and $X_j \dot{<} X_k$, then $X_i \dot{<} X_k$.

When both of these assumptions are satisfied, preferences are said to be weakly ordered.

Next we consider the two independence assumptions which are at the heart of the conjoint measurement form of additivity. When outcomes are characterized by only two attributes, the following independence assumption is required.

3a) Cancellation. Let x_{1i} , x_{1j} , and x_{1k} be any three states of the first attribute x_1 , and let x_{2i} , x_{2j} , and x_{2k} be any three states of the second attribute x_2 . If $(x_{1j}, x_{2i}) \dot{<} (x_{1k}, x_{2j})$ and $(x_{1i}, x_{2j}) \dot{<} (x_{1j}, x_{2k})$, then $(x_{1i}, x_{2i}) \dot{<} (x_{1k}, x_{2k})$.

When outcomes are characterized by three or more attributes, each of which is sufficiently important to influence the decision maker's preferences, then the cancellation axiom is replaced by the following independence assumption.

3b) Monotonicity. Let (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) be the attribute vector describing the generic outcome X . Let Y be any subset of these attributes and let Z be the vector of remaining attributes, so that $X = (Y, Z)$. Let Y_i and Y_j be any two states of the Y attributes, and let Z_i and Z_j be any two states of the Z attributes. Then $(Y_i, Z_i) \dot{<} (Y_j, Z_i)$ if and only if $(Y_i, Z_j) \dot{<} (Y_j, Z_j)$.

Intuitively, preferences for states of the Y attributes are not influenced by the state in which the Z attributes are held fixed.

Although the theory of conjoint measurement involves other technical assumptions, for practical purposes satisfaction of weak ordering and cancellation in the two attribute case and of weak ordering and monotonicity in the case of three or more attribute, is necessary and sufficient to guarantee the existence of an additive evaluation function for riskless choice (Krantz, Luce, Suppes, and Tversky, 1971). That is, there will exist an additive value function V comprised of constituent functions V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n such that, for any two outcomes X_i and X_j , $X_i \preceq X_j$ if and only if $V(X_i) \leq V(X_j)$, where

$$V(X) = V_1(x_1) + V_2(x_2) + \dots + V_n(x_n).$$

Further, because riskless choice requires only that the decision maker rank order outcomes in terms of their desirability, if V is a value function, then any monotone transformation of V is also a value function.

Edwards (1971) has argued that it is difficult to imagine circumstances under which the assumptions required for additivity are not satisfied. Those familiar with the economic concepts of complementary and competing goods might object. For example, the attribute "number of right shoes" and the attribute "number of left

shoes" clearly do not combine additively in determining the overall value of a commodity bundle of clothing. From a practical standpoint, however, this example need not lead to the rejection of additive evaluation rules; for the attribute "number of pairs of shoes" may well contribute additively to the overall value of the commodity bundle. Rather, this example illustrates that satisfaction of additivity depends upon an appropriate definition of attributes. In general, Edwards' assertion seems sound. Additive evaluation models should be appropriate for most riskless decisions.

Risky Decision Making. When decision making involves uncertainty, on the other hand, the assumption required to guarantee the existence of an additive evaluation function is strong and intuitively unappealing. Thus, risky decision making may frequently require non-additive evaluation procedures. Formally, a decision is said to be risky when, for each possible course of action, the decision maker is able to specify a probability distribution over the possible consequences of that action. Let (A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m) be the set of possible actions and let (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) be the set of possible consequences of those actions. Then for each act A_i there is an associated

probability distribution of outcomes $(p_{11}, X_1; p_{21}, X_2; \dots; p_{n1}, X_n)$. That is, given that act A_1 is selected, outcome X_1 will occur with probability p_{11} ; outcome X_2 with probability p_{21} ; and so on. Thus, in risky decision making the decision maker chooses not between outcomes, but rather between probability distributions of outcomes.

A number of strategies for making such decisions have been proposed, but the expected utility principle has generally come to dominate normative discussions of risky choice (Luce and Raiffa, 1957). According to this principle there exists a utility function U defined on outcomes such that:

- a) For any two outcomes X_i and X_j , $X_i \prec X_j$ if and only if $U(X_i) \leq U(X_j)$.
- b) For any two actions A_i and A_j , $A_i \prec A_j$ if and only if $EU(A_i) \leq EU(A_j)$.

Here $U(X_i)$ denotes the utility of outcome X_i and $EU(A_i)$ denotes the expected utility associated with action A_i where

$$EU(A_i) = p_{1i}U(X_1) + p_{2i}U(X_2) + \dots + p_{ni}U(X_n).$$

Finally, the utility function U is defined on an interval scale; that is, if U is a proper utility function, then any positive linear transformation of U is also a proper utility function.

The expected utility principle is not new; Bernoulli (1738) discussed it over 200 years ago. Its status as a normative principle was not firmly established, however, until von Neumann and Morgenstern (1944) demonstrated that it could be derived from a set of basic axioms of rational choice. Since that time a number of other axiomatizations of the expected utility principle have appeared (Herstein and Milnor, 1953; Savage, 1954; Luce and Raiffa, 1957; Krantz, Luce, Suppes, and Tversky, 1971).

As stated above, the expected utility principle is neutral with respect to the description of outcomes; they may be either single- or multi-attributed. And when outcomes are multi-attributed, the theory is neutral with regard to the composition rule relating each attribute of an outcome to the overall utility of the outcome. Fishburn (1965), however, has specified a single additional assumption which, when combined with the expected utility principle, guarantees that this function will be additive. Central to Fishburn's proof is a relationship between finite gambles (or discrete probability distributions over finite sets of outcomes) which we will term marginal equivalence. Two gambles are said to be marginally equivalent if they give rise to identical marginal probability distributions over the possible states of each outcome attribute. This

concept is most easily illustrated for the case of binary attributes. Consider outcomes of the form (x_1, x_2, x_3) where the first attribute may assume either of the states x_1' or x_1'' ; the second attribute either of the states x_2' or x_2'' ; and the third attribute either of the states x_3' or x_3'' . Next, consider the gambles G_1 and G_2 where

$$G_1 = \begin{cases} \text{with probability } 1/3 \text{ receive outcome } (x_1'', x_2', x_3') \\ \text{with probability } 1/3 \text{ receive outcome } (x_1', x_2'', x_3') \\ \text{with probability } 1/3 \text{ receive outcome } (x_1', x_2', x_3'') \end{cases}$$

$$G_2 = \begin{cases} \text{with probability } 2/3 \text{ receive outcome } (x_1', x_2', x_3') \\ \text{with probability } 1/3 \text{ receive outcome } (x_1'', x_2'', x_3'') \end{cases}$$

For both gambles the probabilities of receiving attribute states x_1' , x_2' , and x_3' are $2/3$ and the probabilities of receiving attribute states x_1'' , x_2'' , and x_3'' are $1/3$. Thus, G_1 and G_2 are marginally equivalent. For though the joint probability distributions over outcome attributes differ for the two gambles, the marginal distributions are the same. Fishburn has shown that a multi-attribute utility function U defined on a finite set of outcomes can be additive if and only if the following assumption is satisfied.

- 4) Marginality: Let G_1 and G_2 be any two finite gambles defined on the outcome set. If G_1 and G_2 are marginally equivalent, then $G_1 \sim G_2$.

That is, given that the expected utility principle is satisfied, an additive utility function U exists if and only if the decision maker's preferences satisfy the marginality principle. And, as the following example illustrates, the marginality assumption is very strong, and may in many cases fail to be satisfied. Consider the following two gambles.

$$G_a = \begin{cases} \text{with probability } 1/2 \text{ receive } \$5000 \text{ and a 1973 Volvo} \\ \text{with probability } 1/2 \text{ receive } \$10 \text{ and a rusty hubcap} \end{cases}$$

$$G_b = \begin{cases} \text{with probability } 1/2 \text{ receive } \$5000 \text{ and a rusty hubcap} \\ \text{with probability } 1/2 \text{ receive } \$10 \text{ and a 1973 Volvo} \end{cases}$$

Since G_a and G_b are marginally equivalent, a utility function defined on dollars and automobile components can be additive if and only if the decision maker is indifferent between G_a and G_b . A casual survey indicates that most people are not; they prefer G_b which provides a sure prospect of attaining a highly valued outcome. More generally,

it would appear that the marginality assumption will be violated in a wide variety of contexts and that, consequently, non-additive evaluation functions will be required for many risky decision making contexts.

Fortunately, a simple formulation of non-additive utility assessment follows quite naturally from the formal definitions of value and utility. Recall that V is said to be a value function if, for any two outcomes X_i and X_j , $X_i \prec X_j$ if and only if $V(X_i) \leq V(X_j)$. Recall also that U is said to be a utility function whenever the following two conditions are satisfied: a) for any two outcomes X_i and X_j , $X_i \prec X_j$ if and only if $U(X_i) \leq U(X_j)$; and b) for any two actions A_k and A_l , $A_k \prec A_l$ if and only if $EU(A_k) \leq EU(A_l)$. From these definitions it is clear that U and V , if they exist, must be monotonically related. That is, if there exist bonafide utility and value functions U and V , respectively, then there will exist a monotonic transform R such that $U(X_i) = R(V(X_i))$. Thus, given that an appropriate value function V has been assessed, determination of U requires only that R be specified. This formulation applies whether or not U is additive. Note that V may be additive while U is not. For example, let (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) be the vector of attributes characterizing

the generic outcome X , and let $V(X) = \sum V_j(x_j)$. Further, let $U(X) = \log_{10} V(X)$. Then, $U(X) = \log_{10} (\sum V_j(x_j))$, which is not additive in the x_j . This case of additive value but non-additive utility will arise whenever the weak ordering, monotonicity, and expected utility assumptions are satisfied, but the marginality assumption is not. Throughout this paper the approach discussed here will be termed the R(V) method of multi-attribute utility assessment.

A Sensitivity Analysis

The arguments of the previous section suggest that while additive evaluation rules will probably be appropriate for most riskless decision making contexts, non-additive rules may be required for many risky contexts. Yntema and Torgerson (1961) have argued, however, that whenever the monotonicity assumption is satisfied, additive main effects models will provide an excellent approximation to overall value, regardless of how highly interactive the true data generator. This hypothesis implies that the distinction between additive and non-additive evaluation rules is trivial from a practical standpoint. It has also been argued that additive evaluation models are very robust with respect to both the assessment of the functions

relating each attribute to overall value (Edwards, 1971) and to the specification of weighting factors for the attributes (O'Connor, 1972; Fischer and Peterson, 1972). In this section numerical examples are constructed to test each of these hypotheses.

Additive Approximations to Non-Additive Composition Rules. The theory of conjoint measurement assures that whenever the weak ordering and monotonicity assumptions are satisfied, there exists an additive evaluation rule which will preserve the ordinal properties of the decision maker's preferences. For risky decision making, however, an evaluation function must also reflect the interval scale properties of the decision maker's preferences, and satisfaction of monotonicity is not sufficient to assure that an additive function can preserve these properties. Yntema and Torgerson (1961) argued, however, that if monotonicity is satisfied, then an additive approximation will do an excellent job of preserving these interval scale properties. They supported this argument with a simple numerical example in which an additive approximation to a data generator consisting only of two way multiplicative interaction terms accounted for 94% of the variance. The present analysis tested the Yntema and Torgerson hypothesis

in the presence of higher order interactions as well. The conclusions drawn are relevant only to decision making contexts in which an interval scale measure of value or utility is required.

This analysis considered only two classes of functions satisfying the monotonicity condition, and is, therefore, illustrative rather than exhaustive. Functions of the first class consisted of additive and two-way cross product terms.

$$F_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \sum_1 x_1 + \sum_{\substack{1j \\ 1 \neq j}} \sum_1 x_1 x_j$$

These functions closely resemble those studied by Yntema and Torgerson (1961), which included only the two-way cross product terms. Functions in the second class consisted of additive and n-way cross product terms.

$$F_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \sum_1 x_1 + \pi \sum_1 x_1$$

To assess the ability of additive models to approximate F_1 and F_2 , 1000 vectors of attribute values were generated for alternatives described by three, six, and nine attributes. To avoid discontinuities associated with multiplying by zero, values with respect to each attribute

were constrained to be greater than or equal to one. Actual attribute values were randomly generated from a uniform distribution over the range 1 to 100. This data generating process was such that attributes were not correlated with one another.

Using this data set, additive main effects approximations were correlated with F_1 and F_2 for the three, six, and nine attribute alternative sets (see Table 1). In general, the additive approximations to the F_1 models are excellent, and their quality improves as the number of attributes increases from three to nine. Additive main effects models do not, however, provide good approximations to the F_2 models, and the quality of these approximations declines sharply as the number of attributes increases.

These results clearly reveal that the Yntema and Torgerson example has been overinterpreted. Additive models do not provide good approximations to highly interactive data generators satisfying the monotonicity condition. From the standpoint of applied decision theory, this demonstrates that when the marginality assumption is seriously violated, additive evaluation functions will not be acceptable for risky decision making.

TABLE 1

PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS FOR ADDITIVE
APPROXIMATIONS TO NON-ADDITIVE COMPOSITION RULES

N ^a	Composition Rule	
	$\Sigma X_i + \Sigma \Sigma X_i X_j$	$\Sigma X_i + \pi X_i$
3	.964	.858
6	.985	.678
9	.990	.480

^a Number of attributes

Linear Additive Approximations to Non-Linear Additive Models. The last analysis demonstrated that evaluation models are considerably more sensitive to the proper specification of a composition rule than has generally been realized. This analysis tested the sensitivity of multi-attribute evaluation rules to the specification of functions relating each attribute to overall worth. Throughout this analysis, additive composition rules were assumed to be appropriate.

Given the unlimited number of functions which might conceivably arise, an exhaustive analysis was again unfeasible. Instead, only four monotone functions were considered. The first two of these were members of a family of exponential functions frequently discussed in the utility theory literature:

$$f_1(x) = a_1(1 - e^{-x/50})$$

$$f_2(x) = a_2(1 - e^{-x/10}).$$

Here a_1 and a_2 are scaling constants such that $f_1(0) = 0$ and $f_1(100) = 100$. Figure 1 displays plots of these two functions.

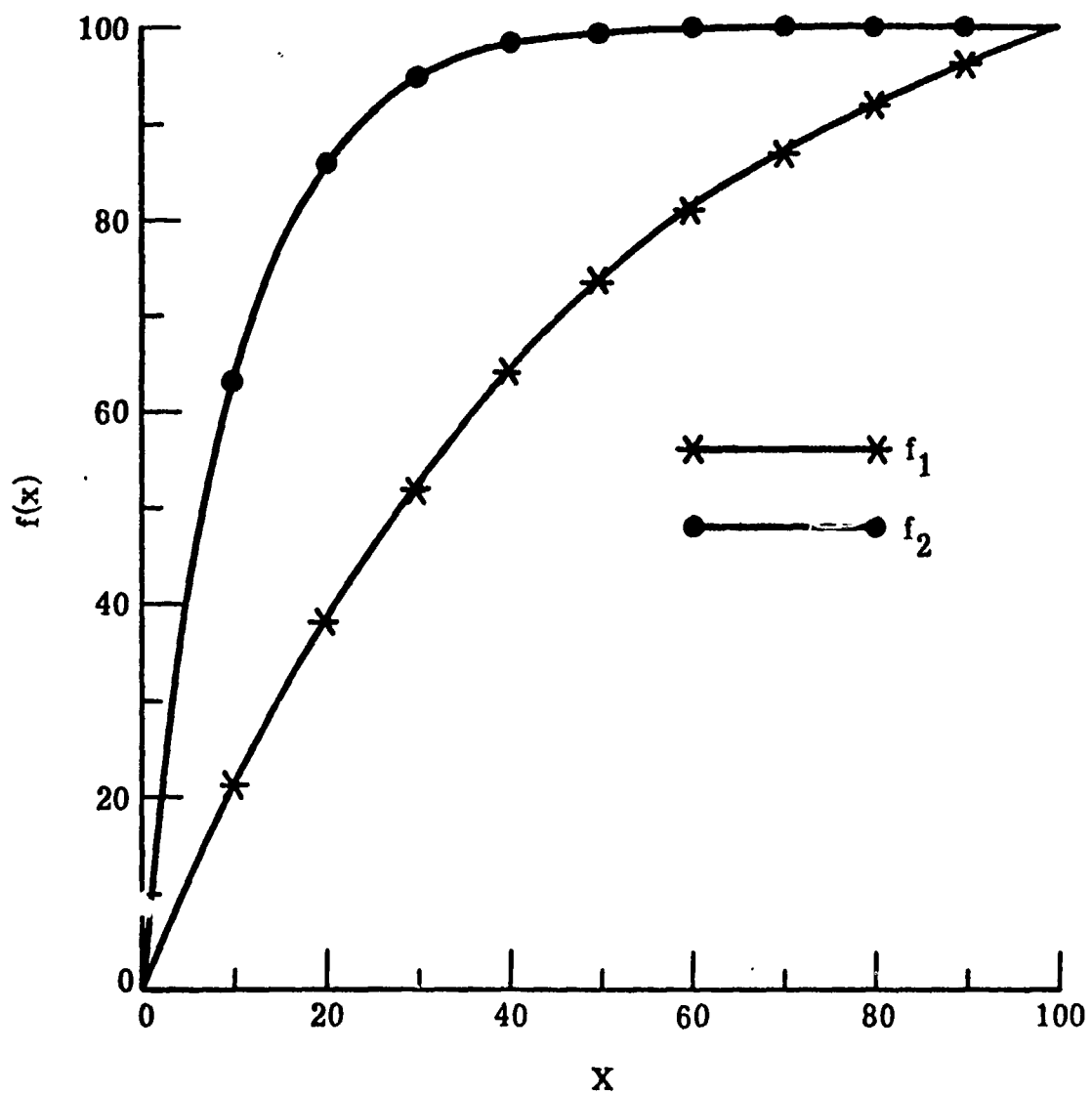


Figure 1. Plots of the functions f_1 and f_2 .

The third and fourth functions studied were members of a family of power functions of a type frequently encountered in studies of psychophysical judgment:

$$f_3(x) = a_3(x - 70)^{1/3} + b_3$$

$$f_4(x) = a_4(x - 20)^{1/5} + b_4.$$

Graphs of these two functions are displayed in Figure 2. Again, a_3 , b_3 , a_4 , and b_4 are scaling constants such that $f_1(0) = 0$ and $f_1(100) = 100$.

Using these functions, four classes of multi-attribute evaluation models were constructed:

$$F_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f_1(x_1) + f_1(x_2) + \dots + f_1(x_n)$$

$$F_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f_2(x_1) + f_2(x_2) + \dots + f_2(x_n)$$

$$F_3(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f_3(x_1) + f_3(x_2) + \dots + f_3(x_n)$$

$$F_4(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f_4(x_1) + f_4(x_2) + \dots + f_4(x_n).$$

Actual numerical examples were constructed for $n = 1, 3, 6$, and 9 . For the single attribute case, values were computed for all integer values of x between 0 and 100 . For the

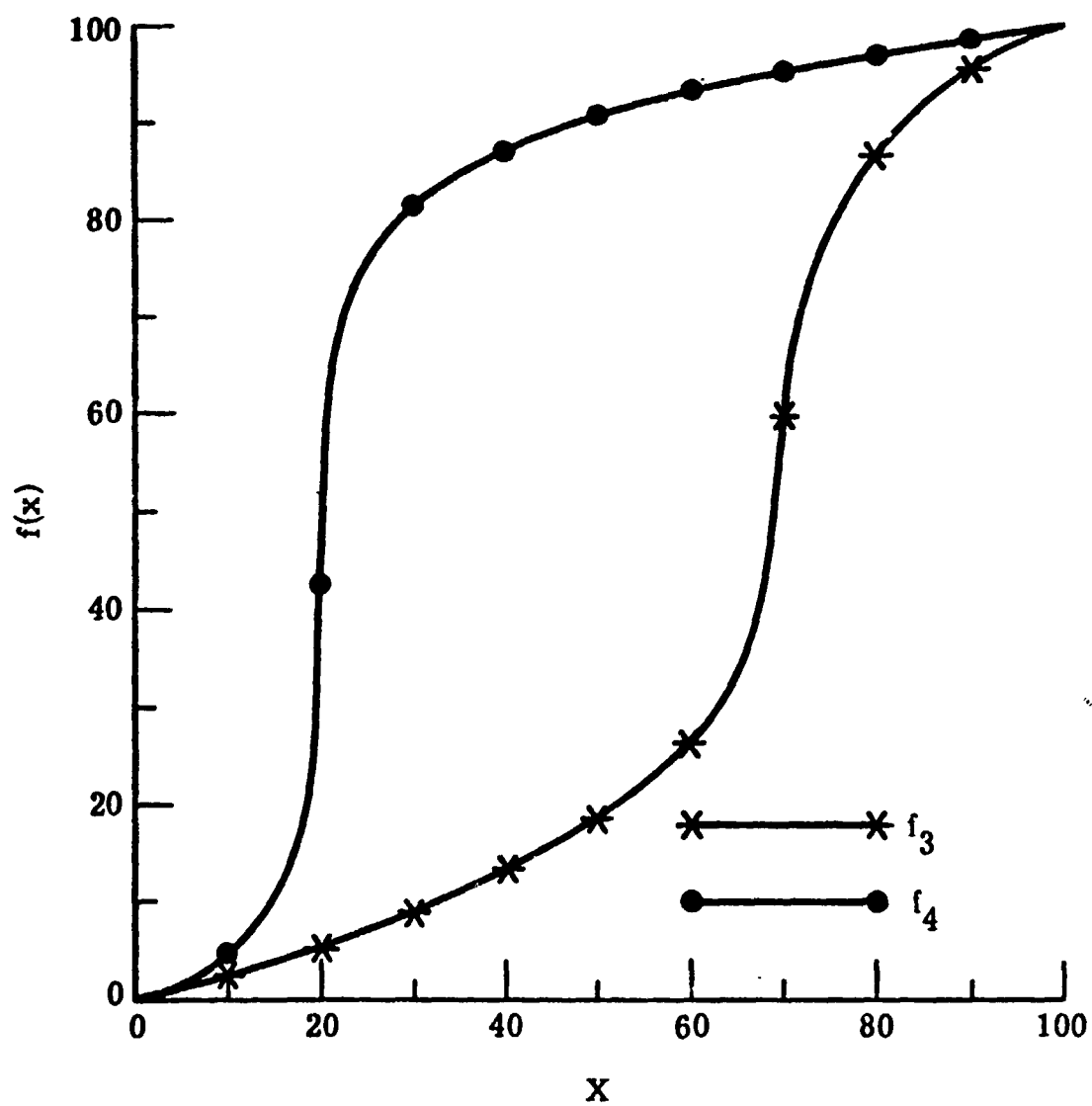


Figure 2. Plots of the functions f_3 and f_4 .

multi-attribute cases, 500 three, six, and nine attribute vectors were randomly generated. States of each attribute were randomly selected from a uniform distribution over the range 0 to 100. Again, this data generator was such that attributes were uncorrelated. Overall values were computed for each of these alternative vectors using F_1 , F_2 , and F_4 .

In order to assess the sensitivity of these multi-attribute evaluation rules to the proper specification of component functions, three types of approximations were considered. For the "straight line" approximations, value was assumed to increase linearly with x ; in particular, it was assumed that $f(x) = x$. For the "one-step" approximations, the true value for $x = 50$ was plotted. Straight line segments were then used to connect this point, $(50, f(50))$, with the two end points of the scale, $(0,0)$ and $(100,100)$. For the "three-step" approximations, true values were plotted for $x = 25, 50$, and 75 . Straight line segments were then used to connect these points, $(25, f(25))$, $(50, f(50))$, and $(75, f(75))$, with the end points of the scale. Separate approximations were developed for each of the four functions studied. Additive models based on these approximations were then used to compute overall values for each of the randomly generated alternatives. These

approximated values were then correlated with the true values generated by F_1 , F_2 , F_3 , and F_4 . The results of this analysis are presented in Table 2.

The first important result of this analysis is that the quality of the approximations does not vary with the number of attributes describing an alternative. Overall correlations with the multi-attribute alternatives are not substantially better than the correlations of the approximations to the individual component functions. Thus, straight line approximations provide a good fit only when the component functions are highly linear (i.e., in the cases of F_1 and F_3). In all cases, however, the three-step approximations are excellent. And, except in the case of F_2 , the one-step approximations are also very good.

These results suggest that while straight line approximations will not always be acceptable, it is not necessary to precisely assess the value of every state of a given attribute. Even in the case of continuous attributes, it should seldom be necessary to assess the value of more than three to five intermediately valued states. Interpolation between these points should provide an excellent approximation to the value of other states of the attribute.

TABLE 2

PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS FOR LINEAR ADDITIVE
APPROXIMATIONS TO NON-LINEAR ADDITIVE FUNCTIONS

Function	N ^a	n ^b	Approximation		
			Linear	1-Step	3-Step
f ₁	1	101	.968	.997	1.000
	3	500	.972	.997	.999
	6	500	.971	.997	.999
	9	500	.970	.996	.999
f ₂	1	101	.691	.851	.971
	3	500	.727	.863	.974
	6	500	.710	.859	.973
	9	500	.705	.851	.969
f ₃	1	101	.925	.981	.981
	3	500	.924	.981	.980
	6	500	.928	.981	.980
	9	500	.927	.981	.980
f ₄	1	101	.825	.936	.968
	3	500	.835	.935	.971
	6	500	.833	.934	.971
	9	500	.834	.936	.966

^a Number of attributes.

^b Number of observations upon which correlation is based.

Sensitivity to Weighting Parameters. This section considers the sensitivity of evaluation rules to inaccurate assessment of weighting parameters. Throughout it will be assumed that an additive composition rule is appropriate and that the component functions have been accurately assessed.

For three, five, and nine attribute outcomes, three different additive evaluation models were constructed. These models differed only in the relative weight which they assigned to each attribute. In each case, the first of these three rules discriminated very highly between the attributes, assigning 81 times as much weight to the most important attribute as to the least important attribute. The second rule utilized the same rank ordering of attribute importance, but afforded much less discrimination. Here the ratio of the weights assigned to the most and least important attributes, respectively, was only nine to one. The third rule did not discriminate at all between attributes; each received equal weight. Specifically, for the three attribute alternatives the "high", "low", and "no" discrimination models were:

$$H_3(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 81x_1 + 25x_2 + x_3$$

$$L_3(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 9x_1 + 5x_2 + x_3$$

$$N_3(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1 + x_2 + x_3.$$

For the five attribute outcomes the three evaluation rules were:

$$H_5(x_1, x_2, \dots) = 81x_1 + 49x_2 + 25x_3 + 9x_4 + x_5$$

$$L_5(x_1, x_2, \dots) = 9x_1 + 7x_2 + 5x_3 + 3x_4 + x_5$$

$$N_5(x_1, x_2, \dots) = x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5.$$

And for the nine attribute outcomes the rules were:

$$\begin{aligned} H_9(x_1, x_2, \dots) = & 81x_1 + 64x_2 + 49x_3 + 36x_4 + 25x_5 \\ & + 16x_6 + 9x_7 + 4x_8 + x_9 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} L_9(x_1, x_2, \dots) = & 9x_1 + 8x_2 + 7x_3 + 6x_4 + 5x_5 \\ & + 4x_6 + 3x_7 + 2x_8 + x_9 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} N_9(x_1, x_2, \dots) = & x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 \\ & + x_7 + x_8 + x_9. \end{aligned}$$

Each of these nine evaluation rules was then used to compute the value of 1000 randomly generated attribute vectors. Again, the attributes were uncorrelated and values within each attribute were generated by a uniform distribution over the range of 0 to 100. Finally, for three,

five, and nine attributes, the high, low, and no discrimination models were correlated with one another. These correlations, displayed in Table 3, indicate that additive models are quite robust against improper specification of weighting parameters. The low discrimination models afford excellent prediction of the high discrimination models. In addition, the no discrimination models provide a good approximation to the low discrimination models. These results suggest that additive evaluation rules are relatively insensitive to errors in the assessment of importance weights. The low correlation between the high discrimination and no discrimination models demonstrates, however, that insensitivity is a relative matter and that gross errors in the assessment of weights will lead to seriously biased overall value assessments.

Methods for Assessing Decomposed Evaluation Functions

In the previous sections we have considered the theoretical basis for multi-attribute evaluation and the sensitivity of multi-attribute evaluation rules to various types of assessment errors. This section discusses four procedures for assessing a decomposed evaluation function. Throughout this discussion it is assumed, first,

TABLE 3
PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ADDITIVE
MODELS WITH DIFFERENT WEIGHTING FACTORS

N ^a	Models ^b		
	High-Low	High-No	Low-No
3	.977	.756	.855
5	.967	.736	.865
9	.968	.768	.888

^a Number of attributes.

^b The High, Low, and No discrimination models assigned relative weights of 81:1, 9:1, and 1:1 to the most and least important attributes, respectively.

that the set of alternatives to be evaluated has been listed, and second, that the attributes with respect to which these alternatives are to be evaluated have been specified.

The first of the four procedures, the additive rating scale method, has been adapted from Edwards (1971), Fishburn (1965), and Hoepfl and Huber (1970). It is designed for riskless evaluation and involves four major steps. First, for each attribute, x_1 , the decision maker specifies the most and least desirable states, denoted by x_1^* and x_{1*} , respectively. Arbitrarily, these states may be assigned values of 100 and 0, respectively.

Next, within each attribute, the decision maker assigns numerical values to all intermediately valued states. For example, consider the i -th attribute and let x_{ij} be any state of this attribute such that $x_{1*} < x_{ij} < x_1^*$. For each such state the decision maker assesses a value $V_1(x_{ij})$ which reflects the value of x_{ij} relative to x_{1*} and x_1^* . If the attribute is continuous, interpolation between a few well chosen points will be required.

Third, weighting or scaling factors are assessed which reflect the relative importance of each attribute.

The relative weight assigned to a given attribute should be proportional to the change in overall value produced by moving that attribute from its least to most valued state, all other things being equal (Fishburn, 1965). For convenience, these weights may be normalized to sum to one.

Finally, overall values may be assigned to each alternative by the additive evaluation rule

$$V(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = w_1 V_1(x_1) + w_2 V_2(x_2) + \dots + w_n V_n(x_n),$$

where w_1 is the normalized weighting factor for the 1-th attribute.

The second decomposition procedure, the additive trade-off method, is also designed for riskless decision making. Essential to this procedure is the existence of an important continuous base attribute against which all other attributes may be traded off; for example, lives saved or equivalent dollar value. Let x_1 denote this attribute. Next, for each attribute, a standard state, x_1^0 , must be specified. Then, differences in value between states of the other attributes can be traded off into units of the base attribute x_1 . For example, let x_{1j} be any state of the 1-th attribute. The decision maker is asked

to specify a state of the first attribute, x_{1k} , such that $(x_1^0, x_2^0, \dots, x_{1-1}^0, x_{1j}, x_{1+1}^0, \dots, x_n^0) \sim (x_{1k}, x_2^0, \dots, x_n^0)$. Intuitively, x_{1k} should be such that the difference in value between x_1^0 and x_{1j} is equal to that between x_1^0 and x_{1k} . One such judgment is required for each state of the attributes x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n . When attributes are continuous, interpolation will be necessary. In this way deviations from the standard state of each attribute may be expressed in terms of units of the base attribute.

When overall value is assumed to be linear in the units of the base attribute, each attribute may be assigned an overall value by summing over attributes the base attribute equivalent value of the deviation of each attribute from its standard state. For example, if the base attribute is measured in dollar units, then within each of the other attributes deviations from the standard state of the attribute will be assigned dollar equivalent values. If the state of an attribute is preferred to its standard state, then this dollar value will be positive. If the state of an attribute is less desirable than its standard state, then this dollar value will be negative. Thus, assuming that value is linear with dollars, an overall value can be assigned to an alternative by summing over

attributes the dollar equivalent value of the deviation of each attribute from its standard state.

When riskless value is not linear in units of the base dimension, it is necessary to assess a riskless value function V over this base attribute. This function may be assessed using the direct estimation procedure described for obtaining functions over attributes in the rating scale procedure. In this way, value differences within each of the other attributes may be expressed in terms of units of the value function V . These units may then be summed across attributes to assign overall values to multi-attribute alternatives.

The next two decomposition procedures to be discussed are designed for risky decision making. Because both procedures rely upon the indifference probability method (Luce and Raiffa, 1957; Raiffa, 1968) for assessing risky utilities, this method is considered first. It can, in principle, be applied to either single- or multi-attribute outcomes. It will later be argued, however, that the method is best suited for single-attribute assessment and that decomposition procedures should be used for multi-attribute utility assessment, particularly when the number of attributes is large.

Let (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m) be the set of outcomes to which utilities are to be assigned. In applying the indifference probability procedure the decision maker must first specify the most and least desirable outcomes in this set; let X^* and X_* denote these outcomes, respectively. The decision maker assigns utilities to all other outcomes in the outcome set by comparing them with X^* and X_* . These comparisons take the form of hypothetical lotteries or gambles. Consider any intermediately valued outcome X_1 . The decision maker assigns a utility to this outcome by specifying a probability p_1 such that he is indifferent between receiving the outcome X_1 with certainty or accepting the gamble $(p_1, X^*; (1-p_1), X_*)$. One such indifference probability must be assessed for each outcome in the set. These indifference probabilities themselves provide an appropriate utility measure, provided that the decision maker has assessed them in an expected utility maximizing fashion. To show that this is the case, note that utilities are defined only on an interval scale. Thus the extreme outcomes X^* and X_* may be arbitrarily assigned utilities of 1.0 and 0.0, respectively. Then, assuming that the indifference probabilities were assessed in an expected utility maximizing fashion, the relation $X_1 \sim (p_1, X^*; (1-p_1), X_*)$ implies that $U(X_1) = p_1 U(X^*) + (1-p_1)U(X_*)$, or $U(X_1) = p_1$.

The validity of the indifference probability assessment technique rests on the assumption that the decision maker acts as an expected utility maximizer in evaluating simple gambles. Although this is surely an idealization, studies of human gambling behavior indicate that expected utility models provide a fairly close approximation to this behavior, provided that the gambles involved are of the very simple type used in the indifference probability assessment method (Davidson, Suppes, and Siegel, 1957; Coombs, Bezeminder, and Goode, 1967; Tversky, 1967). Application of the indifference probability assessment technique to complex multi-attribute alternatives, however, seems very questionable because of the heavy information load placed upon the decision maker. To reduce this information overload problem, utility decomposition procedures have been developed. As in the case of riskless evaluation, these procedures reduce the complexity of the judgments required of the decision maker.

The first of the two utility decomposition procedures which we will discuss was developed by Raiffa (1969) and will be termed the additive utility procedure. In implementing this method the decision maker begins by specifying the most and least preferred states of each attribute. These states are arbitrarily assigned within attribute

utilities of 1.0 and 0.0, respectively. That is, for each attribute, $U_i(x_{i1}^*) = 1.0$ and $U_i(x_{i1*}) = 0$. Next, utilities must be assigned to intermediately valued states of each attribute. For example, let x_{ij} denote the j -th state of the i -th attribute. To assign a utility to state x_{ij} the decision maker assesses a probability p_{ij} such that he is indifferent between obtaining state x_{ij} with certainty or accepting the gamble $(p_{ij}, x_{i1}^*; (1-p_{ij}), x_{i1*})$, assuming all other attributes are held constant. One such judgment must be elicited for each state of each attribute. Note that in making these assessments, the decision maker needs only to consider the relative utility of different states of a single attribute. Again, if attributes are continuous, interpolation will be required.

Next, the decision maker must assign importance factors to each attribute. This is accomplished by having the decision maker assess the utility range associated with each attribute. Notationally, let $X^* = (x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_n^*)$ and $X_* = (x_{1*}, x_{2*}, \dots, x_{n*})$ denote the most and least desirable multi-attribute outcomes, respectively. And let $(x_k^*, x_{\bar{k}*})$ denote the outcome which is characterized by the most desirable state of attribute k and the least desirable state of all other attributes. There will be n such outcomes. In order to assess the utility range associated with

the k -th attribute, the decision maker specifies a probability, w_k , such that he is indifferent between accepting the outcome (x_k^*, x_{k*}) with certainty or accepting the gamble $(w_k, X^*; (1-w_k), X_*)$. Arbitrarily letting $U(X^*) = 1.0$ and $U(X_*) = 0.0$, it can easily be shown that w_k is a measure of the utility range of the k -th attribute, and thus, that the w_k may be used as weighting factors in an additive utility function. This method of assigning weights is the most undesirable feature of the additive utility decomposition, for it relies upon wholistic utility assessments of n multi-attribute outcomes. When the number of attributes is large, these assessments may be subject to a substantial degree of error.

Finally, overall utilities may be assigned to each multi-attribute outcome according to the additive rule

$$U(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = w_1 U_1(x_1) + w_2 U_2(x_2) + \dots + w_n U_n(x_n).$$

These utilities can be used in the computation of the expected utility associated with each course of action.

Despite the apparent similarities between this procedure and the riskless rating method, Raiffa (1969) has shown that the two will not necessarily coincide. They should be monotonically related, so that both may be used

for riskless decisions. But they need not be linearly related, and only the additive utility method is formally appropriate for risky decision making.

The second utility decomposition, the R(V) method, exploits the monotone relationship between riskless value and risky utility. Recall that if V is an appropriate measure of riskless value, then there exists some monotone transform R such that $U(X) = R(V(X))$. So, given a decomposed value function V , U can be specified simply by determining R . This may be accomplished in either of two ways, depending upon the manner in which the riskless value function has been assessed.

When trade-off procedures have been used to construct the value function V , assessment of R will be particularly easy. Suppose, for example, that all outcomes have been traded off into a continuous base dimension, such as equivalent dollar value or number of lives saved per year. Then R can be directly obtained simply by assessing a utility function over the continuous base attribute. In contrast to the additive utility decomposition, this variant of the $R(V)$ method requires no wholistic multi-attribute utility assessments. Rather, the decision maker needs only to assign single attribute wholistic utilities to three to five states of the base attribute.

When the riskless value function has been constructed using rating scale procedures, assessment of R is somewhat more difficult. Raiffa (1969) has suggested that the decision maker directly assess the utilities of a few well chosen multi-attribute outcomes. The values of these outcomes (as indicated by the rating scale decomposition) can then be plotted on one axis, and the wholistic utilities assigned to these outcomes on the other. Utilities for outcomes having other values can then be obtained by interpolating a curve through the points for which utilities have been assessed. Like the additive utility decomposition, this variant of the $R(V)$ method requires wholistic multi-attribute utility assessments. In many cases it will require fewer, however. For while this variant of the $R(V)$ method will require three to five such judgments, the additive utility method requires as many such judgments as there are attributes.

Validation of Decomposed Evaluation Functions

The decomposition procedures just described are not difficult to implement. Nevertheless, it remains to be shown that the judgments required can be made in a systematic and meaningful fashion. Broadly speaking, experimenters have adopted two general approaches to this problem of validating decomposed value measures.

The first approach, external validation, requires that it be possible to specify an objective (externally defined) criterion against which to validate the value measure. This strategy is most likely to be useful when value attributes are essentially predictors of the decision maker's overall objective. For example, price to earnings ratios, corporate earnings growth trends, and dividend yields are often used as measures of the value of an issue on the stock exchange. These attributes are of value, however, only in so far as they are predictors of the investor's true goal, expected monetary return. Thus, investment decisions generated by a decomposed evaluation model could be validated against subsequent monetary return. In principle, external validation should be applicable to a wide variety of real world decision making contexts. In practice, however, it has been employed only in two experimental studies (Yntema and Torgerson, 1962; Lathrop and Peters, 1969), both of which found decomposed evaluation to be slightly, but not dramatically, superior to wholistic judgment.

The second approach to validation was proposed by Miller, Kaplan, and Edwards (1967, 1969) and rests on the principle of convergent or construct validity.

The basic idea of construct validity is that a test should make sense and the data obtained by means of it should make sense. One form of making sense is that different procedures purporting to measure the same abstract quantity should covary (Miller, Kaplan, and Edwards, 1967, p. 367).

In the context of decomposed evaluation, logically equivalent evaluation procedures should assign similar values to alternatives.

Most applications of this strategy have examined the degree of within subject convergence between wholistic and decomposed judgments. When alternatives are characterized by a small number of attributes, information overload should not be a serious problem, so it is reasonable to expect a high degree of consistency between the two types of judgments. Mean within subject correlations between wholistic and decomposed judgments have typically ranged from the low .80s to high .90s (Pollack, 1964; Hoepfl and Huber, 1970; Pai, Gustafson, and Kiner, 1971; von Winterfeldt, 1971), though in one case (Huber, Daneshgar, and Ford, 1971) correlations in the low .60s were obtained. The poor convergence in this latter case, however, may well have been due to noise in the wholistic responses rather than to any weakness of the decomposition approach (see Fischer, 1972).

In each of the above convergent validation studies, decomposed models were validated against wholistic rankings or ratings. They may also be validated against real or hypothetical choices. Two studies have adopted this strategy (Yntema and Klem, 1965; Huber, Daneshgar, and Ford, 1971), and both obtained a high degree of within subject convergence.

A third variant of the within subject convergent validation strategy has also been considered. To the extent that they are valid indicators of a decision maker's preferences, two or more different decomposition models ought to assign the same values to alternatives. This approach is particularly attractive because it can be used in real world decision making contexts in the absence of a known criterion and without relying upon difficult wholistic judgments. Eckenrode (1965) obtained a high degree of within subject convergence across six different procedures for assessing importance weights. Von Winterfeldt (1971), on the other hand, obtained low convergence between weighting procedures but high convergence between additive models based upon these weights. This latter result reflects the robustness of additive models against minor errors in weights.

Finally, in some instances, between subject convergence may provide an appropriate validating device. This strategy is primarily applicable to matters of expert judgment rather than personal taste. Kennedy (1971) asked professional bankers and accountants to assign weights to attributes of loan applications, and obtained a high degree of convergence between the average weights assessed by these two groups of subjects. Eckenrode (1965) and O'Connor (1972), on the other hand, obtained only moderate correlations between weighting factors assessed by different expert judges. In addition, however, O'Connor found that overall indices based upon these divergent weights assigned very similar overall values to alternatives, another instance of the robustness of additive models against variations in weights.

In summary, a number of different approaches to the validation issue have been considered, and in all cases the experimental results have supported the decomposition approach. Nevertheless, this validation literature has two major shortcomings. First, only one study (von Winterfeldt, 1971) has dealt with risky utility assessment. Second, trade-off procedures, which may well prove the most useful tool for real world decision making, have yet to be experimentally validated.

EXPERIMENT 1

The goal of this experiment was to fill two gaps in the validation literature by experimentally validating the additive trade-off and additive utility decompositions. Additive rating scale methods were also studied so that the degree of convergence between the three approaches could be assessed and so that the comparative advantages and disadvantages of the three methods could be determined.

Method

Design. Subjects evaluated hypothetical compact cars described by either three or nine attributes. Each subject utilized six different response modes, three of which required wholistic judgments and three decomposed judgments. In the first wholistic response mode, subjects evaluated each car on a 0 to 100 rating scale. In the second, they compared each car with a "standard car" which was approximately average in all respects, indicated which they preferred, and assigned a dollar value to the difference in worth between the two cars. In the third, subjects assigned utilities to cars utilizing the indifference probability assessment procedure. After all

wholistic judgments had been made, subjects constructed decomposition models using the additive rating scale, dollar trade-off, and risky utility methods.

In analyzing the data, two versions of the within subject convergent validation strategy were considered. First, each of the three types of decomposition models was used to predict each of the three types of wholistic judgments. Second, the degree of convergence between the three decomposition models was assessed and contrasted with that between the three types of wholistic judgments.

Subjects. Six male University of Michigan students served as subjects. They were screened for prior mathematical exposure to insure that they would feel comfortable with the task. One of the six failed to complete one portion of the experiment and was dropped from all data analyses.

Alternatives. Subjects evaluated hypothetical compact cars described by either the first three or all nine of the attributes listed in Table 4. Several of these attributes, such as fuel economy, were in principle continuous. Others, such as type of transmission, were categorical. In either case, at least three and at most five different states of each attribute were used to

TABLE 4

LIST OF ATTRIBUTES USED TO DESCRIBE
ALTERNATIVES IN EXPERIMENT 1

Name of Attribute	Units	States				
		1	2	3	4	5
1) Quality of Steering and Handling ^a	****	VG	G	A ^c	P	VP
2) Fuel Economy	Miles per Gal.	22	24	26 ^c	28	30
3) Comfort: Rear Seat ^a	****	A	P ^c	VP		
4) Acceleration (0 to 60 mph)	Secs.	12	14	16 ^c	18	20
5) Radio Equipment	****	AM/FM	AM	None ^c		
6) Cost of Upkeep	****	Low	A ^c	High		
7) Comfort: Front Seat ^a	****	VG	G	A ^c	P	VP
8) Stopping Distance (from 60 mph)	Feet	125	135	145 ^c	155	165
9) Transmission ^b	****	4-S ^c	3-S	Auto		

^a VG, G, A, P, and VP represent ratings of Very Good, Good, Average, Poor, and Very Poor, respectively.

^b 4-S, 3-S, and Auto represent four speed stick shift, three speed stick shift, and automatic transmission, respectively.

^c "Standard state" for the attribute.

construct alternatives. Table 4 lists the states considered for each of the nine attributes.

For the three attribute alternatives, a set of 12 hypothetical cars was constructed. States of the three attributes were randomly determined subject to the following constraints. For the five state attributes, each state was selected at least two times and at most three; for the three state attributes, each was chosen four times. A similar procedure was used to construct a set of 18 cars described by nine attributes. For five state attributes, each state was chosen at least three times and at most four; for the three state attributes, each was chosen six times.

Procedure. Subjects were first familiarized with the nine attributes. They were instructed to regard performance and quality indicators as reliable measures collected by an independent automotive testing service. To provide a frame of reference for the quantitative measures of acceleration, fuel economy, and braking, subjects were provided with actual test data for the 1971 model Volkswagen "Super Beetle," Plymouth Satellite, and Ford Boss 351 Mustang. Next, subjects specified the most and least desirable combinations of attribute states for both the three and nine attribute alternatives. These were used as a frame of reference throughout the experiment.

Subjects next made six sets of wholistic judgments. For each of the three wholistic response modes, subjects evaluated two sets of stimuli; one in which cars were described by three attributes and one in which they were described by nine. The same two sets of stimuli were evaluated in each of the three wholistic response modes. Subjects were randomly assigned to each of the six possible orders of the three response modes. But within a given response mode, the three attribute alternatives were always presented first. This within response mode presentation order was adopted to facilitate task learning on the part of the subjects.

Elicitation of the wholistic judgments proceeded as follows. Subjects were handed a booklet of either 12 or 18 pages for the three and nine attribute alternative sets, respectively. Each page of a booklet listed the attributes describing a particular alternative. On the bottom of each page was the response device.

For the rating scale judgments, subjects indicated their response by making a slash through a 100 millimeter line which was divided into 10 equal segments, and labeled at 10 unit intervals from 0 to 100. Subjects were instructed that the previously specified most and least desirable cars could be arbitrarily assigned values of 100

and 0 on this scale, and asked to evaluate other cars relative to these two extremes.

In the wholistic dollar trade-off response mode, subjects were first shown the list of attributes characterizing the "standard car" for both three and nine attributes (see Table 4). These cars were selected so as to be approximately average in all respects. At the bottom of each page was the question "Preferred to standard car?", to which the subject responded "yes" if he preferred the car described on the page to the standard car, and "no" if he preferred the standard car. Below this the subject indicated the dollar difference in value between the two cars.

Before assessing risky utilities, subjects were introduced to the indifference probability assessment procedure. Subjects first assigned utilities to simple gambles involving only monetary outcomes. They did not actually play these gambles. After they were familiar with the procedure, subjects used it to assign wholistic utilities to the hypothetical cars. Throughout, subjects had at their disposal a table for converting from probabilities to odds levels, but always gave their responses in probability form.

Subjects were not introduced to the idea of decomposition until after all wholistic judgments had been made. Decomposed models were constructed in the order in which subjects had made the corresponding wholistic judgments.

In constructing rating scale models, subjects first assigned values to the various states of each attribute. Using a 100 millimeter scale, they located the most and least desirable states of the attribute in question at the 0 and 100 points of the scale, respectively. They then indicated the relative values of other states of the attribute by making slashes through the scale. Importance weights were elicited in a similar fashion. First subjects ranked attributes in order of their importance. They next arbitrarily assigned an importance of 100 to the most important attribute. Then, again using a 100 millimeter scale, they assigned relative importance weights to each of the other attributes. Subjects were told to view these importance assessments as percentages. For example, a rating of 50 would indicate that an attribute was 50% as important as the most important attribute. Finally, these importance weights were normalized to sum to one.

Additive trade-off decomposition models were constructed using a slightly modified version of the procedure described earlier. Within each attribute, subjects assigned dollar

equivalent values to deviations from the standard state of each attribute. For example, let x_i^0 be the standard state of the i -th attribute, and let x_{ij} be any other state of that attribute. Subjects were first asked to indicate which of these two states they preferred. They were then asked to assign a dollar value to the difference in worth between these two states. These dollar differences were then assumed to combine additively across attributes.

In constructing additive utility models, subjects used the indifference probability assessment procedure to assign within attribute utilities to the states of each attribute. In making these judgments, they compared intermediately valued states of each attribute with the most and least valued states of that attribute, assuming all other attributes to be held constant. Next, subjects assessed wholistic utilities from which importance weights were derived. For both three and nine attributes, subjects assessed multi-attribute utilities for all alternatives for which one attribute was in its most valued state and all other attributes in their least valued states. As noted earlier, such assessments provide a measure of the utility range associated with each attribute and thus provide an appropriate measure of importance. In principle, these

importance assessments should have summed to one. In practice, however, they typically did not, and so were normalized to sum to one.

During all stages of the above procedure, subjects were run individually and under close supervision.

Results

Convergence between Wholistic and Decomposed Responses.

As noted earlier, the formal definitions of value and utility require that any two such measures be monotonically related. So if subjects were completely consistent in making all of their wholistic and decomposed assessments, and if their wholistic assessments satisfied the monotonicity condition, then each of the three decomposition models should perfectly predict the rank ordering of alternatives generated by each of the three wholistic response modes. To test this proposition, rank order correlations were computed (see Table 5). For the three attribute alternatives the obtained correlations were in general very high. Similar results were obtained for the nine attribute alternatives, though these correlations were generally somewhat lower. Here, however, the risky utility decomposition consistently provided poorer predictions of the rank orders generated by all three wholistic response modes.

TABLE 5
RANK ORDER CORRELATIONS (RHO) BETWEEN WHOLISTIC AND
DECOMPOSED ASSESSMENTS: EXPERIMENT 1

N ^a	Wholistic Mode	Decomposition	Subject					
			1	2	3	4	5	Median
3	Rating Scale	Rating Scale	1.00	.85	.94	.90	.97	.94
	\$ Trade-off		.98	.94	.94	.93	.99	.94
	Utility		.85	.97	.95	.87	.99	.95
3	\$ Trade-off	Rating Scale	.98	.73	.95	.96	.90	.95
	\$ Trade-off		1.00	.86	.95	.89	.93	.93
	Utility		.86	.87	.99	.81	.93	.87
3	Utility	Rating Scale	.96	.75	.94	.98	.98	.96
	\$ Trade-off		.97	.89	.94	.96	.95	.95
	Utility		.93	.99	.94	.89	.94	.94
9	Rating Scale	Rating Scale	.95	.90	.83	.91	.86	.90
	\$ Trade-off		.87	.90	.85	.93	.89	.89
	Utility		.78	.78	.80	.83	.91	.80
9	\$ Trade-off	Rating Scale	.96	.82	.94	.97	.89	.94
	\$ Trade-off		.93	.85	.95	.99	.85	.93
	Utility		.77	.88	.95	.93	.85	.88
9	Utility	Rating Scale	.94	.75	.80	.91	.91	.91
	\$ Trade-off		.91	.77	.87	.93	.94	.91
	Utility		.77	.76	.76	.84	.95	.77

^a Number of attributes.

The utility theory axioms also require that any two interval scale measures of value or utility be linearly related. Thus, assuming risky utilities to be additive, each of the three decompositions should be equally predictive of the interval scale properties of each of the three types of wholistic responses. To test this hypothesis, product moment correlations between wholistic and decomposed judgments were computed (see Table 6). Data for the three attribute alternatives generally supported this hypothesis, though there was some indication that the risky utility decomposition afforded poorer prediction of the riskless wholistic assessments than did the riskless decomposition models. Similar results were obtained for the nine attribute alternatives, though here it was more evident that the risky utility decomposition afforded poorer prediction of the riskless wholistic assessments.

To provide a more sensitive measure of interval scale convergence, mean absolute deviations (MABS) between wholistic and decomposed assessments were also computed. Because the various sets of responses were measured on different scales, these differences could not be directly computed. To make all sets of responses comparable, each subject's data was transformed as follows. Within each response mode and stimulus set all judgments were linearly

TABLE 6
PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN WHOLISTIC AND
DECOMPOSED ASSESSMENTS: EXPERIMENT 1

N ^a	Wholistic Mode	Decomposition	Subject					
			1	2	3	4	5	Median
3	Rating Scale	Rating Scale	.99	.92	.95	.96	.94	.95
	\$ Trade-off		.97	.96	.95	.96	.96	.96
	Utility		.80	.92	.95	.93	.97	.93
3	\$ Trade-off	Rating Scale	.99	.86	.96	.96	.92	.96
	\$ Trade-off		1.00	.92	.97	.92	.92	.92
	Utility		.85	.90	.98	.87	.94	.90
3	Utility	Rating Scale	.81	.80	.95	.92	.95	.92
	\$ Trade-off		.85	.86	.95	.92	.95	.92
	Utility		.91	.94	.94	.93	.93	.93
3	Rating Scale	Rating Scale	.97	.96	.93	.91	.86	.93
	\$ Trade-off		.93	.96	.94	.94	.89	.94
	Utility		.80	.88	.91	.86	.90	.88
9	\$ Trade-off	Rating Scale	.98	.88	.96	.96	.92	.96
	\$ Trade-off		.98	.89	.97	1.00	.91	.97
	Utility		.85	.90	.96	.92	.90	.90
9	Utility	Rating Scale	.80	.84	.91	.87	.89	.87
	\$ Trade-off		.80	.85	.95	.84	.90	.85
	Utility		.82	.85	.89	.84	.92	.85

^a Number of attributes.

transformed to range between 0 and 100. Such transformations were appropriate because the value and utility functions in question were defined only on an interval scale. Using this transformed data set, within subject MABS scores were computed (see Table 7). This analysis revealed a clear departure from the utility theory assumption that preference is risk variant. For both three and nine attributes, the utility decomposition afforded better prediction of the risky wholistic assessments and the riskless decompositions afforded better predictions of the riskless wholistic assessments. This result is reminiscent of Tversky's (1967) finding that an interval scale measure of subjective worth varies depending upon whether or not it is based upon risky or riskless judgments. In addition, however, the MABS analysis of the nine attribute alternatives generated results which seem to conflict with those of the previously discussed rank order correlation analysis. For, using Spearman's rho as a measure of convergence, the additive utility decomposition models provided the poorest predictions of all three sets of nine attribute wholistic judgments, including those wholistic judgments which were assessed using the indifference probability utility assessment procedure. Yet using MABS as a measure of convergence, the additive utility decomposition models provided the best

TABLE 7
 MEAN ABSOLUTE DEVIATIONS OF DECOMPOSED FROM
 WHOLISTIC ASSESSMENTS: EXPERIMENT 1

N ^a	Wholistic Mode	Decomposition	Subject					
			1	2	3	4	5	Median
3	Rating Scale	Rating Scale	5	8	7	7	8	7
		\$ Trade-off	7	7	7	7	9	7
		Utility	21	13	7	11	7	11
3	\$ Trade-off	Rating Scale	3	13	6	9	11	9
		\$ Trade-off	1	11	6	7	9	7
		Utility	17	11	6	15	10	11
3	Utility	Rating Scale	25	17	8	13	9	13
		\$ Trade-off	24	15	8	15	10	15
		Utility	11	12	8	9	10	10
9	Rating Scale	Rating Scale	6	7	8	12	13	8
		\$ Trade-off	8	6	8	10	13	8
		Utility	17	12	9	15	10	12
9	\$ Trade-off	Rating Scale	4	10	6	8	8	8
		\$ Trade-off	2	10	6	2	8	6
		Utility	16	10	6	11	11	11
9	Utility	Rating Scale	31	14	10	17	12	14
		\$ Trade-off	32	14	7	19	14	14
		Utility	19	12	10	16	9	12

^a Number of attributes

predictions of the nine attribute wholistic utility assessments. Apparently the additive utility decomposition procedure was subject to a considerable degree of random error which caused it to fail to correctly order alternatives which were fairly similar in overall utility. In addition, however, the additive utility decomposition procedure did capture some of the subjects' attitude toward risk and was thus better able to predict the interval scale properties of the wholistic utility assessments.

Convergence between Decomposition Models. To the extent that they are valid, two or more decomposed evaluation models should produce the same rank ordering over a given set of alternatives. Rank order correlations were computed to test this proposition (see Table 8). In general, the three decompositions did produce similar rank orderings. The degree of ordinal convergence between the decomposition methods was not, however, greater than that between the various sets of wholistic responses (see Table 9). In fact, convergence between the additive utility decomposition and the other two decompositions was poorer than that between the wholistic utility assessments and the other two types of wholistic assessments. This result further supports the earlier conclusion that the additive utility decomposition procedure is subject to a considerable degree of error.

TABLE 8
CONVERGENCE BETWEEN DECOMPOSED EVALUATION
MODELS: EXPERIMENT 1

Measure ^a	N ^b	Models ^c	Subject					Median
			1	2	3	4	5	
Rho	3	RS-TO	.98	.93	1.00	.97	.97	.97
		RS-UF	.84	.77	.95	.89	.97	.89
		TO-UF	.85	.90	.95	.92	.99	.92
Rho	9	RS-TO	.95	.95	.95	.96	.94	.95
		RS-UF	.77	.79	.99	.97	.94	.94
		TO-UF	.85	.88	.94	.92	.93	.92
PM	3	RS-TO	.99	.98	1.00	.98	.97	.98
		RS-UF	.82	.79	.99	.94	.99	.94
		TO-UF	.85	.88	.99	.94	.97	.94
PM	9	RS-TO	.98	.99	.97	.95	.97	.97
		RS-UF	.84	.88	.99	.97	.97	.97
		TO-UF	.85	.92	.97	.91	.97	.92
MABS	3	RS-TO	4	6	0	4	6	4
		RS-UF	18	17	3	9	3	9
		TO-UF	17	13	3	10	6	10
MABS	9	RS-TO	4	4	6	8	6	6
		RS-UF	15	11	2	6	5	6
		TO-UF	15	9	6	11	8	9

^aMABS, PM, and Rho refer to mean absolute deviations, product moment correlation, and Spearman's Rho rank order correlation.

^bNumber of attributes.

^cRS, TO, and UF denote the additive rating scale, additive trade-off, and additive utility decompositions, respectively.

TABLE 9
CONVERGENCE BETWEEN WHOLISTIC RESPONSE
MODES: EXPERIMENT 1

Measure ^a	N ^b	Models ^c	Subject					Median
			1	2	3	4	5	
Rho	3	RS-TO	.98	.81	.96	.81	.92	.92
		RS-UF	.96	.96	1.00	.87	.95	.96
		TO-UF	.97	.86	.95	.96	.84	.95
Rho	9	RS-TO	.92	.87	.85	.95	.91	.91
		RS-UF	.91	.89	.97	.93	.96	.93
		TO-UF	.90	.83	.83	.93	.88	.88
PM	3	RS-TO	.98	.87	.96	.89	.92	.92
		RS-UF	.79	.91	1.00	.89	.94	.91
		TO-UF	.84	.80	.96	.86	.82	.84
PM	9	RS-TO	.96	.90	.96	.95	.87	.95
		RS-UF	.75	.87	.98	.81	.95	.87
		TO-UF	.78	.80	.95	.84	.84	.84
MABS	3	RS-TO	6	14	6	10	14	10
		RS-UF	29	16	3	16	9	16
		TO-UF	25	22	7	22	18	22
MABS	9	RS-TO	6	11	8	9	12	9
		RS-UF	32	15	6	19	7	15
		TO-UF	33	15	7	19	15	15

^aMABS, PM, and Rho refer to mean absolute deviations, product moment correlation, and Spearman's Rho rank order correlation.

^bNumber of attributes.

^cRS, TO, and UF denote the wholistic rating scale, trade-off, and utility response modes, respectively.

Consideration of the interval scale properties of the three decompositions also revealed a high degree of convergence. Both product moment correlation and MARS analyses indicated that the degree of interval scale convergence between the three decompositions was consistently and substantially greater than that between the corresponding wholistic response modes (see Tables 8 and 9).

Discussion

The generally high degree of convergence between not only the decomposed models themselves, but also between the wholistic and decomposed judgments strongly suggests that all three decomposition procedures can provide a meaningful measure of the decision maker's preferences. The relatively low rank order correlations between the additive utility decomposition and the other nine attribute wholistic and decomposed judgments suggests, however, that the additive utility decomposition is less reliable than the other two decomposition methods.

Experiment 1 also produced two other noteworthy results. First, the degree of interval scale convergence between the three decomposition procedures was consistently greater than that between the corresponding sets of wholistic judgments. This finding supports the contention that decomposition can improve upon wholistic evaluation by

reducing the amount of random error in the evaluation process.

The final noteworthy result was that the degree of convergence between the decomposition models and the risky wholistic assessments was less than that between the decomposition models and the riskless wholistic assessments. Although a number of explanations of this finding are possible, two seem most salient. First, the risky wholistic assessments may simply be subject to more random error, and thus, are inherently less predictable than the riskless wholistic assessments. The difficulty of the judgments required in the risky wholistic response mode makes this explanation quite plausible. A second possible explanation is that the wholistic preferences for risky alternatives were systematically non-additive, and thus, that additive decomposition models provided an imperfect approximation to the subjects' true preferences. Confirmation of this hypothesis would suggest that non-additive decomposition procedures are required for risky decision making. For there are certainly no compelling normative grounds for additive evaluation under risk. The marginality assumption which is required for additivity seems very questionable from a normative standpoint, and it is easy to construct

instances in which this assumption is and clearly should be violated. Thus, if wholistic preferences under risk exhibit evidence of substantial non-additivity, it seems reasonable to conclude that the decision maker's preferences really are non-additive, and that any decomposition procedure devised to assist him in making decisions should be capable of reflecting this non-additivity.

EXPERIMENT 2

The primary objectives of Experiment 2 were to determine first, whether wholistic risky utility assessments are substantially non-additive, and second, whether the $R(V)$ utility decomposition provides a better measure of risky utility than does the additive utility decomposition studied in Experiment 1. These two objectives are closely related. For, if wholistic preferences are systematically non-additive under risk, then a non-additive utility decomposition procedure, like the $R(V)$ method, seems called for. But even if wholistic preferences under risk are additive, the $R(V)$ method might prove superior to the additive utility decomposition. Experiment 1 suggested that the additive utility decomposition might be subject to a substantial degree of error. The $R(V)$ method considerably simplifies the evaluation process by permitting the decision maker to separate the consideration of value trade-offs between attributes from consideration of his attitude toward risk. Because of its relatively greater simplicity, the $R(V)$ method might provide a less error prone measure of risky preference than the additive utility decomposition.

Method

Design. Because wholistic utility assessments were to be used to evaluate the relative desirability of additive and non-additive utility assessment procedures, a large amount of random error in these wholistic utility judgments would have posed a serious problem. To avoid this possibility, only three attribute alternatives were considered.

In the first stage of Experiment 2 subjects wholistically evaluated hypothetical job offers using both the riskless rating scale and risky utility response modes. Because the analysis of variance was to be used to provide a formal test of the additivity assumption, subjects evaluated all possible combinations of attribute states. Half of the subjects assessed the riskless ratings first, and half the risky utilities first. After all wholistic judgments had been made, subjects constructed additive rating scale, additive utility, and $R(V)$ utility decomposition models.

Subjects. Ten male students from the University of Michigan Schools of Engineering and Business Administration served as subjects. All were either seniors or graduate students and had, as a consequence, given serious

consideration to the problem of obtaining a job following their graduation.

Alternatives. The alternatives to be evaluated were hypothetical job offers described by three attributes: annual salary, city of employment, and type of work. Each of these attributes assumed three states, yielding 27 possible job offers.

Particular states of the three attributes were specified as follows. The experimenter arbitrarily established three salary levels -- \$14000, \$11000, and \$9000 -- and three cities -- Boston, Cleveland, and Tulsa. But given the rather divergent backgrounds and interests of the subjects, it was not possible to arbitrarily specify three types of work which would be applicable to all subjects. Instead, the experimenter asked each subject to describe three types of work, the first of which he would view as "very good" given his interests and goals, the second of which was less desirable than the first, but nonetheless "good", and the third of which was barely acceptable or "fair".

As in Experiment 1, alternatives for the wholistic judgments were presented in booklet form. Each page of a booklet listed the three attributes describing a particular job offer. Subjects evaluated each of the 27 possible job

descriptions once in each response mode. In addition, to provide a measure of wholistic reliability, subjects re-evaluated five of the alternatives for a second time. For each wholistic response mode, two booklets of wholistic alternatives were constructed. Each booklet contained 16 job descriptions. Five of these were reliability items which occurred in both booklets. The remaining 22 alternatives were randomly divided between the two booklets. The order of booklet presentation was randomized across subjects.

Procedure. After becoming familiar with the nature of their evaluation task, subjects created the descriptions of the "fair", "good", and "very good" types of work. Next they specified the most and least desirable of the 27 possible job offers. Then wholistic assessments were elicited. As in Experiment 1, subjects indicated their riskless ratings by making a slash through a 100 millimeter scale which was divided into ten equal intervals and numbered from 0 to 100.

Elicitation of the risky wholistic judgments differed from Experiment 1, however, in that a plausible scenario could be constructed. The instructions given to subjects can be paraphrased as follows.

Suppose that the two jobs which you previously stated were the most (J^*) and least (J_*) attractive of the possible job offers are two of only three job offers which you have, and suppose that the intermediately valued offer (J') described on the page of the booklet before you is the third. You have been told that J_* is yours for the asking, and you may wait several months if you wish before giving your decision. The J' offer, on the other hand, requires an immediate response. You can have it now if you wish but if you wait the offer will no longer be available. Unfortunately, while you have some chance of receiving the J^* offer, you will not know for certain until several weeks from now, and you cannot wait that long before stating whether you will accept or reject J' .

This leaves you with only two alternative courses of action. First, you can accept J' , thus forfeiting any chance to J^* but assuring that you will not have to accept J_* . Or second, you can reject J' . In this case, if you are fortunate, you will receive the offer J^* , but if not, you will have to accept J_* . Clearly, your decision in this matter will depend upon how likely you are to receive the J^* offer. Your task in this portion of the experiment is to specify, for each offer J' , a probability p' of receiving the J^* offer such that you would be indifferent between accepting and rejecting J' .

The actual instructions were stated less formally, and subjects found this scenario quite plausible. Some had, in fact, experienced such a situation. This plausibility further strengthened the case for using these wholistic utility assessments as a criterion for validating the decomposed utility models.

After completing the wholistic phase of the experiment, subjects constructed decomposed evaluation models. For the rating scale and additive utility decompositions they followed the procedures utilized in Experiment 1. To obtain weighting factors for the additive utility decomposition, subjects reassessed the required wholistic multi-attribute utilities. Thus, the additive utility decompositions were independent of the set of wholistic utility judgments which they were used to predict.

Construction of the $R(V)$ utility decompositions required no additional judgments. The rating scale models provided a measure of riskless value. To determine the transform R , the experimenter utilized the three wholistic multi-attribute utility assessments from which the weighting factors of the additive utility decompositions had been determined. These three utilities were plotted on one axis, and the corresponding values assigned by the rating scale decompositions on the other. Between these three points and the two extreme outcomes, J^* and J_* , the transform R was approximated by straight line segments joining adjacent points for which utilities had been assessed. For one subject (#5) the three wholistic utility assessments were not monotonically related to the values assigned by the rating scale decomposition. In this case, the transform R was based on the two utility assessments which were nearest to the 0 and 100 points of the utility scale.

As in Experiment 1, subjects performed all tasks individually and under close supervision.

Results

Riskless Ratings. The present design permitted a direct test of the generally accepted assumption that wholistic riskless preferences are additive. The analysis of variance summarized in Table 10 revealed that despite a significant ($p \leq .01$) City by Salary interaction, additive main effects accounted for 99.2% of the fixed effects sums of squares. So, for practical purposes, the wholistic ratings were essentially additive.

The next four analyses to be discussed were all designed to assess the degree of convergence between wholistic and decomposed riskless judgments. Because the rating scale decomposition was to be used as the basis for the R(V) decomposition, it was especially important that the rating scale models provide an accurate measure of riskless preference.

The first two measures of convergence, the rank order and product moment correlation coefficients, both indicated a very high degree of convergence between the wholistic and decomposed ratings (see Table 11). The

TABLE 10
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR WHOLISTIC
RATINGS: EXPERIMENT 2

Factor	df	F-ratio	% of Total Fixed Effects Sums of Squares
City (C)	2,18	15.12**	19.6
Salary (S)	2,18	351.80**	13.1
Type of Work (W)	2,18	45.40**	66.5
C X S	4,36	4.68**	.3
C X W	4,36	2.07	.3
S X W	4,36	1.20	.1
C X S X W	8,72	1.50	.1

** $p < .01$

TABLE 11
CONVERGENCE OF RATING SC/LE DECOMPOSITION MODELS
WITH WHOLISTIC RATINGS: EXPERIMENT 2

Measure ^a	Subject									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Rho	.94	.97	.99	.88	.95	.97	.93	.99	1.00	1.00
PM	.94	.97	.99	.87	.95	.96	.89	.99	1.00	.97
MABS	8	5	4	11	7	7	14	3	2	7
										Median
										.970
										.965
										7

^a MABS, PM, and Rho refer to mean absolute deviations, product moment correlations, and Spearman's Rho rank order correlations.

third measure, the mean within subject absolute deviation (MABS) of wholistic from decomposed ratings, also indicated a high degree of convergence (see Table 11). The median MABS across subjects was only 7 (on a scale of 100), a very respectable result in view of the fact that the mean MABS between wholistic reliability items was 6.

In the final and most sensitive test of convergence, the cumulative frequency distribution of the absolute deviations of wholistic from decomposed judgments was plotted and compared with the cumulative frequency distribution of deviations between reliability items. The two distributions, plotted in Figure 3, were very similar. Only for errors of one unit or less was the wholistic reliability substantially greater than the degree of convergence between wholistic and decomposed ratings. This result suggests that the decomposition models accounted for virtually all systematic variance in the wholistic ratings, and thus, that the additive rating scale models provided an accurate measure of riskless preference.

Risky Utilities. The hypothesis that wholistic utility assessments are additive was tested by analysis of variance (see Table 12). This analysis indicated that, despite a significant ($p \leq .05$) City by Type of Work

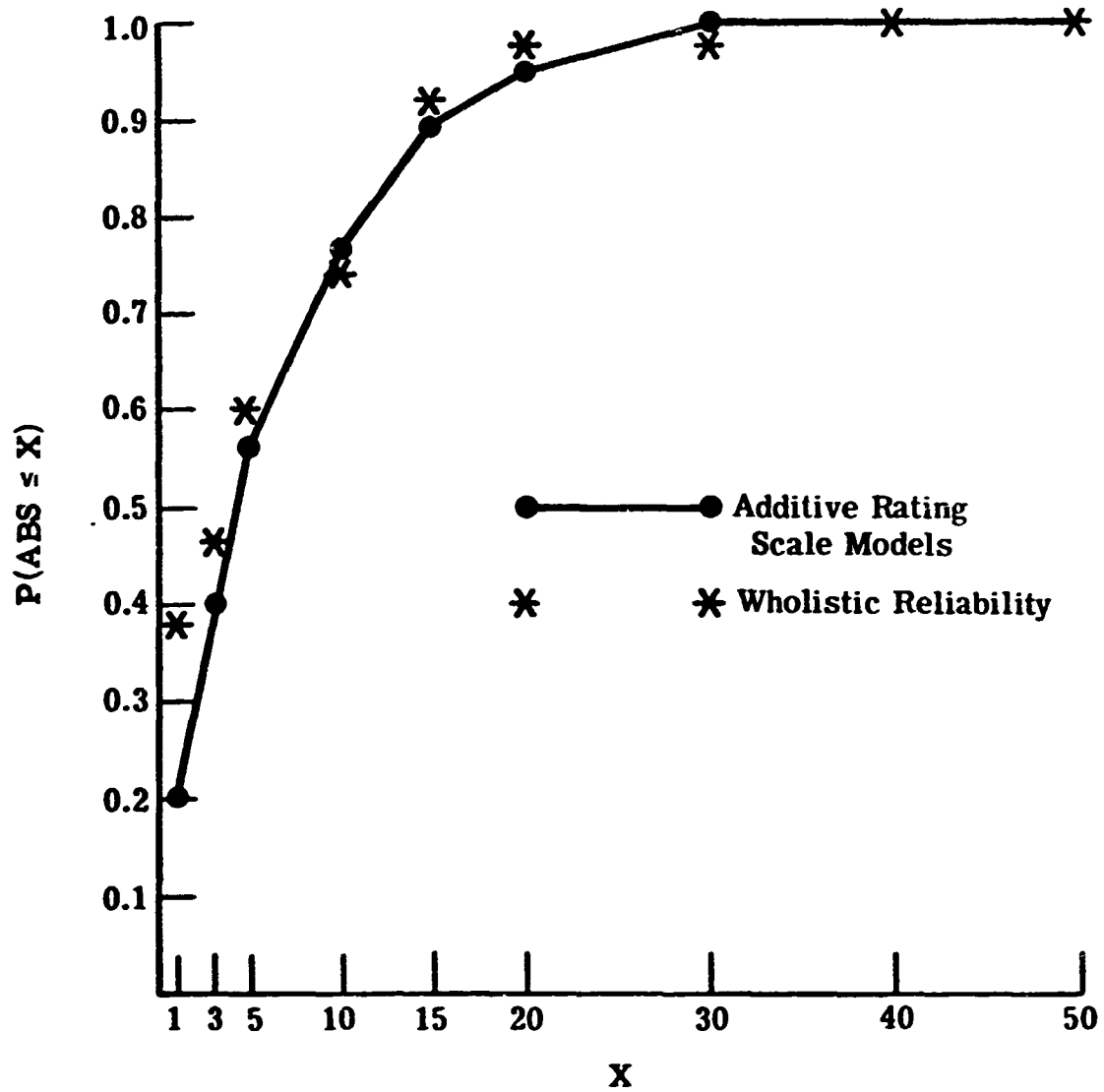


Figure 3. Cumulative distributions of absolute deviations from wholistic ratings.

TABLE 12
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR WHOLISTIC RISKY
UTILITY ASSESSMENTS: EXPERIMENT 2

Factor	df	F-ratio	% of Total Fixed Effects Sums of Squares
City (C)	2,18	23.95**	23.7
Salary (S)	2,18	492.00**	17.5
Type of Work (W)	2,18	40.10**	57.6
C X S	4,36	2.22	.1
C X W	4,36	3.10*	.9
S X W	4,36	.78	.2
C X S X W	8,72	.32	.1

** $p \leq .01$

* $p \leq .05$

interaction, these wholistic utility assessments were also essentially additive. Here additive main effects accounted for 98.8% of the fixed effects sums of squares.

As in the case of the riskless ratings, four measures of convergence between wholistic and decomposed judgments were obtained. In each of these analyses all three decomposition models were used to predict the wholistic utility assessments. Table 13 summarizes the rank order correlations, product moment correlations, and MABS scores. For all measures all three decomposition models yielded excellent predictions of the wholistic utility assessments. The median MABS scores for the rating scale, additive utility, and R(V) utility decompositions were 11, 9, and 9, respectively, all excellent in view of the fact that a mean MABS of 9 was obtained for the wholistic reliability judgments.

The cumulative frequency distributions of absolute deviations did, however, discriminate to some degree between the three decomposition models (see Figure 4). Examination of these distributions reveals that the R(V) and additive utility decompositions consistently dominated the rating scale models. The differences involved, however, were very small. These distributions also reveal that the

TABLE 13
CONVERGENCE OF THE THREE DECOMPOSITION MODELS WITH
THE WHOLISTIC UTILITY ASSESSMENTS: EXPERIMENT 2

Measure ^a	Model ^b	Subject										
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Median
Rho ^c	UF	.93	.91	.97	.85	.91	.90	.98	.97	.97	.98	.950
	R(V)	.95	.87	.97	.81	.95	.95	.95	.95	1.00	.98	.950
	RS	.95	.87	.97	.81	.95	.95	.95	.95	1.00	.98	.950
PM	UF	.93	.92	.93	.84	.91	.92	.99	.96	.99	.92	.925
	R(V)	.94	.90	.93	.79	.93	.95	.85	.94	1.00	.97	.935
	RS	.95	.87	.93	.81	.94	.94	.91	.93	1.00	.92	.930
MABS	UF	9	9	11	11	10	10	5	7	3	14	9.5
	R(V)	9	7	10	14	8	10	14	9	1	6	9.0
	RS	10	12	10	12	7	12	12	11	2	14	11.5

^a MABS, PM, and Rho refer to mean absolute deviations, product moment correlations, and Spearman's Rho rank order correlations.

^b UF, F(V), and RS denote the additive utility, R(V) utility, and additive rating scale decomposition models.

^c Because RS and R(V) are monotonically related, the necessarily have the same rank order correlation with the wholistic assessments.

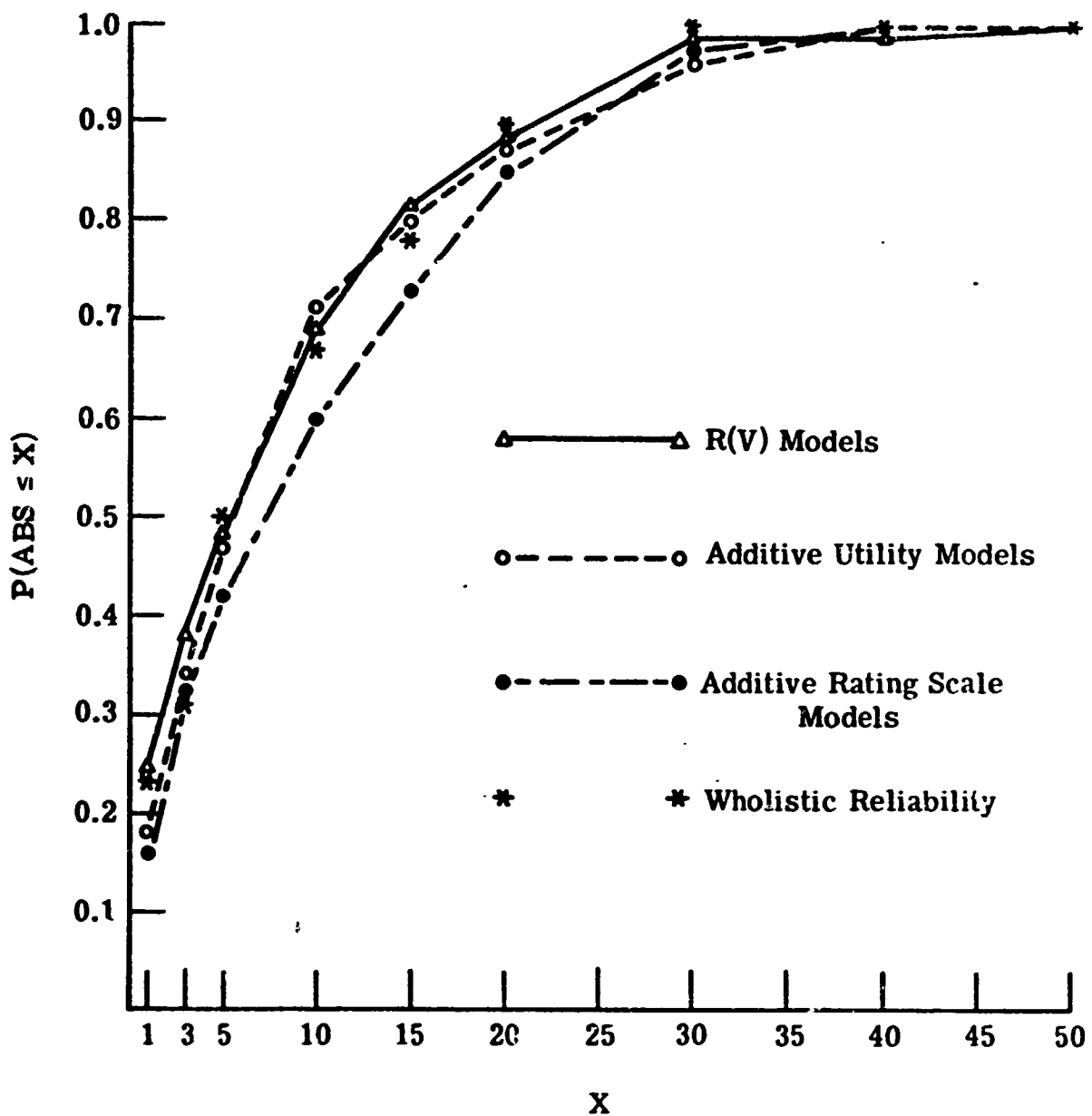


Figure 4. Cumulative distributions of absolute deviations from wholistic utilities.

degree of prediction afforded by the decomposition models was about as high as possible given the degree of reliability inherent in the wholistic utility judgments.

Convergence between Decomposition Models. As the results presented above suggest, convergence between the three decomposition procedures was excellent. This conclusion was supported both by rank order and product moment correlations and by a MABS analysis (see Table 14).

Discussion and Conclusions

Experiment 2 provided further support for the contention that additive decomposition procedures provide an appropriate measure of riskless value. As in Experiment 1, convergence between wholistic and decomposed riskless ratings was very high.

The second major result of Experiment 2 was somewhat unexpected. Because the marginality assumption, which is required for additivity under risk, is intuitively unappealing, the experimenter had expected that subjects would show substantial departures from additivity under risk. The outcomes evaluated, if taken seriously, seem to be of sufficient importance to produce violations of the marginality assumption. Nevertheless, interaction effects

TABLE 14

CONVERGENCE BETWEEN DECOMPOSITION
MODELS: EXPERIMENT 2

Measure ^a	Models ^b	Subject										
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Median
Rho ^c	RS-UF	.99	.92	1.00	.98	.94	.95	.97	.94	.97	1.00	.970
	RS-R(V)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.000
	UF-R(V)	.99	.92	1.00	.98	.94	.95	.97	.94	.97	1.00	.970
PM	RS-UF	.98	.93	.97	.98	.95	.95	.95	.93	.99	1.00	.960
	RS-R(V)	1.00	.97	1.00	.99	.99	.91	.94	.97	1.00	.96	.980
	UF-R(V)	.98	.93	.97	.98	.94	.89	.89	.91	.99	.96	.950
MABS	RS-UF	6	8	6	4	7	7	9	13	4	2	6.5
	RS-R(V)	2	8	1	6	3	22	13	4	2	12	5.0
	UF-R(V)	5	8	7	5	8	19	12	9	3	13	8.0

^aMABS, PM, and Rho refer to mean absolute deviations, product moment correlations, and Spearman's Rho rank order correlations.

^bUF, R(V), and RS denote the additive utility, R(V) utility, and additive rating scale decomposition models.

^cBecause R(V) is a monotonic transformation of RS, their rank order correlation is necessarily 1.00, and RS and R(V) necessarily have the same rank order correlation with UF.

accounted for but a very small proportion of the variance of the wholistic utility assessments. Thus, Experiment 2 does not support the contention that risky utility assessment requires non-additive decomposition procedures. This result should not be too strongly interpreted, however. For the outcomes evaluated were hypothetical, and consideration of the same alternatives when real jobs were at stake might have produced a different result. In addition, the possibility exists that while the job selection context does not produce non-additivity, other multi-attribute evaluation contexts will.

The third major finding of Experiment 2 was that all three decomposition procedures produced excellent, and essentially equal, prediction of the wholistic risky utility assessments. In contrast to Experiment 1, there was no evidence that the additive utility decomposition procedure was subject to a larger amount of error than the other assessment procedures. Uncritical acceptance of these results of Experiment 2 would suggest that the three decomposition methods provide equally valid measures of risky utility, and that choice between the three might be based upon simple practical considerations such as ease of assessment. That is, given the extremely high degree of convergence between all utility assessments, whether

wholistic or decomposed, it seems unfruitful to attempt to determine which response mode is "best". Since they all assign essentially the same utility to a given alternative, it makes little difference which response mode is adopted.

The experimenter is inclined to adopt a more cautious approach, however. For the numerical results presented earlier indicated that interval scale utility measures are quite sensitive to specification of a composition rule. When that rule should be substantially non-additive, use of an additive rule will seriously misrepresent the decision maker's preferences. And despite the additivity of risky preferences in the present experiment, there may well be real world settings where a non-additive evaluation rule is necessary. So in applying multi-attribute utility theory to real world problems, it would still be advisable to employ additive assessment techniques only after having ascertained that the decision maker's preferences are additive. This can be accomplished by determining whether or not the decision maker is indifferent between marginally equivalent gambles. If he is not, then the $R(V)$ technique should be used. When no direct test of the additivity assumption is feasible, the $R(V)$ procedure should again be used. For it is formally appropriate whether or not preferences are additive under risk.

Finally, a brief discussion of previously unmentioned limitations of this research is in order. First, a total of only fifteen subjects participated in the two experiments. Since fairly substantial individual differences were apparent in the data, this is a serious limitation. Given the small samples used in these studies, it was impossible to explore the possibility that different assessment procedures may be required for different decision makers.

In addition, it should be noted that this research completely ignored the problem of defining the list of value attributes relevant to a given decision. These were simply given to subjects as part of their tasks. Yet in actual practice this may well be one of the most difficult aspects of an evaluation problem. It should also be noted that the practice of giving subjects a list of attributes to work with enhances the degree of convergence between wholistic and decomposed assessments. For it assures that both are based on the same information. In the real world, on the other hand, wholistic and decomposed assessments might conflict simply because the decision maker's wholistic assessments took into account considerations which he had not thought to incorporate in his decomposition model.

This criticism applies not only to the present research, but also to virtually all psychological studies of preferences for multi-attribute alternatives.

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